Crime Prevalence and Domestic Violence in Kisenyi Slum Area of Kampala City

Dr Abeera Odetha Katuramu

Senior Lecturer of International Relations & Diplomacy, Department of Political & Administrative Studies-Kampala International University, Kampala-Uganda.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the prevalence of crime and domestic violence in Kisenyi, Kampala City's largest informal settlement, with the aim of understanding their interrelationship and underlying drivers. Drawing on the Social-Ecological and Routine Activity theories, the study adopted a correlational and cross-sectional design targeting 200 respondents, including residents, community leaders, police officers, NGO personnel, and development officers. Data were collected through structured questionnaires and interviews and analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation, and regression analysis. The findings revealed that crime prevalence in Kisenvi characterized by theft, burglary, rape, drug trafficking, conning, and gang activities was closely linked with domestic violence, which manifested in the form of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse within households. Contributing factors such as poverty, unemployment, alcoholism, drug abuse, and overcrowding emerged as significant predictors of both community crime and intimate partner violence. Descriptive statistics indicated a moderate-to-high awareness of crime-related risks (overall mean = 2.81, SD = 0.55) and a high prevalence of domestic violence (overall mean = 3.21, SD = 0.30), while qualitative insights emphasized the role of poverty-induced frustration, cultural norms, and substance abuse in perpetuating gender-based violence. The study concluded that crime and domestic violence in Kisenyi are mutually reinforcing phenomena, exacerbated by socioeconomic hardships, weak law enforcement, and inadequate social services. It recommends integrated interventions such as strengthening community policing, expanding livelihood support, addressing substance abuse, and improving survivor-centered services. Overall, the study highlights that tackling both the structural drivers of crime and the household-level factors underlying domestic violence is essential for sustainable violence prevention and improved security in Uganda's informal settlements, offering valuable insights for policymakers, practitioners, and community-based organizations working to enhance urban safety and social well-being.

Keywords: Crime prevalence, domestic violence, informal settlements, Kisenyi slum Area

1.0. Introduction

Globally, Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) and domestic violence are recognized public-health problems with pervasive physical, mental, and socioeconomic consequences (Sardinha *et al.*, 2022). The most comprehensive prevalence figures are drawn from large-scale, nationally representative population-based surveys, such as the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), and other specialized national violence against women surveys compiled by the World Health Organization (WHO) in collaboration with UN agencies (White *et al.*, 2023). These datasets formed the basis for the WHO's 2018 prevalence estimates, which indicate that more than one in four ever-partnered women aged 15–49 (27%) have experienced physical or sexual IPV in their lifetime, and roughly one in seven (13%) experienced IPV within the year prior to the survey (World Health Organization, 2021; Sardinha *et al.*, 2022). These global estimates also show striking regional differences, with elevated prevalence in many low- and middle-income regions where structural drivers such as poverty, weak social protection, and limited access to services heighten vulnerability to violence. The COVID-19 pandemic and associated control measures (e.g., lockdowns, loss of income, constrained services) further exacerbated risks for many women and households, producing

documented surges in domestic violence across multiple countries and placing additional strain on already limited support systems for survivors (White *et al.*, 2023).

In sub-Saharan Africa, the burden of IPV is higher than the global average; regional and country analyses show elevated lifetime and past-year prevalence in many countries in the region (Kersley and Laurence, 2019). Drivers frequently identified in African contexts include poverty and unemployment, gender-inequitable norms, alcohol and substance use, population displacement or conflict, and gaps in access to justice and health services. Pandemic-era studies from African urban informal settlements like; Nuwematsiko et al. (2022) in Kampala's slums, Abrahams et al. (2021) in South Africa, Ogunkola et al. (2021) in Nigeria, reported increased IPV linked to income loss and food insecurity during COVID-19 restrictions, increased hotline calls and police reports for domestic violence during lockdowns and rising household tensions and IPV during pandemic-induced economic hardship respectively, provide concrete evidence that the socioeconomic shock of COVID-19, loss of daily wages, food insecurity, disrupted schooling, and reduced access to services intensified household stressors strongly associated with increases in domestic violence and other forms of interpersonal crime in informal settlements (Sardinha et al., 2022; Nuwematsiko et al., 2022; White et al., 2023). Evidence from urban slums across the region suggests that interventions to reduce IPV must therefore combine individual-level services (health, counselling, shelters) with structural approaches addressing livelihoods, alcohol misuse, and the protection-service environment.

In Uganda, urban informal settlements face high rates of interpersonal and domestic violence, with underlying drivers such as poverty, overcrowding, unemployment, and limited access to social services. Studies such as Ssewanyana *et al.* (2022), which examined youth violence and risky behaviours, and Nalugya-Sserunjogi *et al.* (2021), which investigated sexual violence among slum-dwelling adolescents, have documented the prevalence of substance use, transactional sex, and other risk factors linked to intimate partner violence (IPV) and wider community crime. Research during the COVID-19 pandemic, notably by Nuwematsiko *et al.* (2022), further highlighted increased domestic violence, reduced income, food and housing insecurity, and worsening mental health in Uganda's urban poor communities.

While, Kisenyi, one of Kampala's largest informal settlements, is characterized by dense housing, high poverty, informal livelihoods, inadequate sanitation, and limited formal social services (Tuhebwe *et al.*, 2021). These conditions heighten both exposure to crime and vulnerability to domestic violence. Local studies, such as Mayanja *et al.* (2023), report high levels of IPV victimization among young people, with correlates including high-risk alcohol use, illicit drug use, unstable relationships, and economic instability. Community and NGO reports indicate that crime in Kisenyi including petty theft, drug markets, and night-time public-order offences often overlaps with household violence. While interventions such as police community meetings, psychosocial support outreach, and youth livelihood programs exist, evaluations reveal persistent gaps in tailoring solutions to the settlement's socioeconomic realities and in ensuring survivors' safe access to justice and health services (Tuhebwe *et al.*, 2021; Mayanja *et al.*, 2023).

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Uganda's urban slums face severe social and economic challenges that fuel high rates of crime and domestic violence. According to UN-Habitat (2022), over 60% of Kampala's population resides in informal settlements characterized by overcrowding, unemployment, poor sanitation, and inadequate housing. These conditions increase vulnerability to interpersonal violence, substance abuse, and other criminal activities (Mayanja *et al.*, 2023). National crime statistics indicate that urban informal settlements record disproportionately high cases of gender-based violence (GBV), petty theft, and alcohol-related offences compared to other urban areas. Despite

various governmental and NGO-led programs, structural poverty, limited access to justice, and low trust in law enforcement hinder effective crime prevention and violence reduction.

Kisenyi, Kampala's largest informal settlement, reflects these national patterns in an acute form. Home to an estimated 35,000-40,000 residents (KCCA, 2023), Kisenyi is marked by extreme poverty, high-density housing, and informal livelihoods. Recent studies (Tuhebwe et al., 2021) highlight alarming levels of intimate partner violence (emotional, physical, and sexual), driven by economic hardship, high-risk alcohol use, drug abuse, and unstable family relationships. Local police and NGO reports show that crime in Kisenyi often overlaps with household violence, as drug markets, petty theft, and public-order disturbances occur in the same areas where domestic abuse is prevalent (Ngozi & Musa, 2022). The COVID-19 pandemic further exacerbated these problems, increasing job losses, food insecurity, and mental health strain, which in turn fuelled both domestic violence and community crime. While some interventions such as community policing meetings, NGO psychosocial support programs, and targeted youth livelihood initiatives have been implemented in Kisenyi, their effectiveness remains limited. Key gaps include insufficient tailoring of interventions to residents' socioeconomic realities, inadequate survivor protection mechanisms, and weak integration of domestic violence prevention within broader crime-reduction strategies. This study is therefore impactful as it will provide evidence-based insights on the intersection between domestic violence and crime in urban slums, identify context-specific drivers, and recommend holistic, community-informed strategies for Kisenyi and similar settlements in Uganda.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical perspective

This study was grounded primarily in the Social-Ecological Theory initially developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) and widely applied to violence research (Heise, 2020), and the Routine Activity Theory proposed by Cohen and Felson (1979), with continued relevance in recent criminological studies (Cohen & Felson, 2021). These theories together provide a robust framework for understanding the multifaceted nature of domestic violence and crime prevalence in Kisenyi slum.

• The Social-Ecological Theory.

The Social-Ecological Theory emphasizes that violence arises from the interaction of multiple factors at different levels; individual, relationship, community, and societal. At the individual level, factors such as substance abuse, prior exposure to violence, or psychological distress can increase the likelihood of perpetrating or experiencing violence. Relationship-level factors include power imbalances, family dynamics, and economic dependencies, which shape patterns of intimate partner violence. At the community level, characteristics like social cohesion, neighbourhood safety, availability of social services, and informal social control influence the prevalence of both domestic violence and community crime. Finally, societal factors such as poverty, gender norms, cultural acceptance of violence, and systemic inequalities create an environment where violence can persist. This multi-layered perspective is particularly relevant for slum settings, where poverty, overcrowding, weak social institutions, and entrenched gender norms converge to amplify both IPV and crime risks (Heise, 2020; World Health Organization, 2021). By using this framework, the study can analyse how these diverse but interconnected factors collectively contribute to the high levels of violence observed in Kisenyi.

This theory underpined the study by emphasizing how personal behaviors (such as substance abuse or history of violence), relationship dynamics (power imbalances, economic dependence), community characteristics (social cohesion, informal control), and broader societal factors (poverty, gender norms, systemic inequality) collectively contribute to domestic violence and crime. In the context of Kisenyi, this theory helps explain how the dense living conditions,

economic hardships, and limited access to formal services create an environment that elevates both household IPV and community crime, making it crucial to examine these layers simultaneously to fully grasp the problem.

• Routine Activity Theory

The Routine Activity Theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen & Felson, 2021). This originates from criminology, focuses on the environmental and situational conditions that facilitate crime. It posits that for a crime to occur, three elements must coincide: a motivated offender, a suitable target, and the absence of a capable guardian. This theory helps explain why certain urban spaces, such as informal settlements with poor lighting, inadequate policing, and prevalent informal economic activities, experience higher crime rates. In Kisenyi, for instance, the lack of formal security measures and the presence of vulnerable populations create frequent opportunities for both community crime and violence within homes. This theory highlights the importance of physical and social environments in either facilitating or deterring crime, suggesting that improvements in community guardianship such as better street lighting, active neighbourhood watch, and consistent police presence can reduce crime and domestic violence incidents (Cohen & Felson, 2021). This theory also supports the study by focusing on the environmental and situational factors that facilitate crime in slum settings. In Kisenyi, factors such as inadequate street lighting, irregular policing, and the prevalence of informal markets provide opportunities for theft, assault, and other crimes to occur. Routine Activity Theory directs attention to how these environmental conditions not only allow community crime but also contribute to the persistence of domestic violence by limiting protective oversight and enabling offenders. Thus, it justifies including environmental and guardianship variables in the study's examination of crime and domestic violence.

Together, these theories provide a holistic lens: the Social-Ecological Theory contextualizes violence within broader social and structural dynamics, while Routine Activity Theory zeroes in on the environmental and situational factors enabling crime. Their integration is essential for understanding the interplay between individual behaviors, family and community relationships, and the physical environment in Kisenyi, ultimately guiding the design of multi-faceted interventions to address crime and domestic violence in this complex urban setting.

2.2. Crime Prevalence and Domestic Violence

Poverty and the difficult living conditions prevalent in slums often intensify frustration, which can manifest in higher levels of gender-based violence or aggressive acts against vulnerable groups (Palit, 2022). Overcrowding within these areas increases the likelihood that children will be exposed to domestic violence, and in households where both parents work, limited supervision may diminish children's sense of belonging and heighten their risk of becoming either victims or perpetrators of violence (Nguyen, 2019). Research conducted in Kampala has linked rapid urbanization to rising levels of crime and violence, driven by factors such as insufficient housing, unemployment, environmental degradation, poverty, poor social infrastructure, and escalating crime rates (Odong, 2023). The persistent shortage of decent housing in urban areas has encouraged the proliferation of slums and informal settlements, now home to the majority of city dwellers (Sugiharti *et al.*, 2022).

Keemera (2022) examined the effects of domestic violence on children during the COVID-19 lockdown, identifying it as a major public health issue. Using a systematic review of secondary sources, the study synthesized qualitative and quantitative evidence to capture the complexity of the problem. While qualitative findings formed the foundation, quantitative data complemented the analysis to provide broader insight. A concurrent triangulation approach enabled integration of both data types, leading to comprehensive conclusions. The study revealed that domestic violence during lockdown caused severe emotional trauma to children, with long-term

psychological repercussions. In a related context, Kersley and Laurence (2019) conducted a phenomenological qualitative study exploring the lived experiences of African American women who had survived domestic violence. Drawing on Bandura's learning theory, they collected data through semi-structured interviews with 20 women aged 18 and above from the metropolitan Georgia area. The analysis revealed recurring themes such as the circumstances that initiated abuse, the pervasive role of fear, and the negative impacts on health and overall well-being.

Miruka (2020) investigated the effect of high crime rates on socio-economic development in Nairobi City County, focusing on Kawangware. Guided by Rational and Learning theories, the study adopted a descriptive survey design targeting households, community policing groups, peace committees, civil society organizations, the Kenya Police, and private security companies. From a sample of 384 respondents selected via simple random sampling, data were collected alongside insights from key informants, including hospital and insurance representatives. Quantitative data were processed using SPSS, while qualitative data were analyzed for emerging patterns. Findings indicated the prevalence of crimes such as moral decline, rape, pickpocketing, drug trafficking, fraud, assault, burglary, armed robbery, terrorism, carjacking, and suicide. The high crime rates discouraged residents from engaging in essential economic and social activities, leading some to abandon their homes, workplaces, religious institutions, and recreational areas.

Baiyu and Wanqing (2023) sought to explain the intergenerational transmission of violence through the application of social learning, cognitive, and gender role theories. Their analysis, based on extensive literature, revealed that children exposed to domestic violence often experience delayed cognitive and social development. Such exposure also fosters the perception that physical violence is an acceptable method of resolving disputes, increasing the likelihood of aggressive behavior and criminal involvement later in life. The authors stress the need for timely psychological and medical interventions for these children to mitigate long-term harm and reduce future violent conduct.

In Uganda, Odong (2023) explored the relationship between slum conditions and crime within Kabalagala parish of the Kampala Metropolitan South Policing Region. Using a mixed-methods design, the study gathered survey responses from 358 participants and conducted interviews with seven key informants, including local leaders and police officers. Quantitative findings were analyzed through descriptive statistics, while qualitative insights were processed thematically. The results showed that population density, settlement configurations, and housing quality were significant factors influencing crime rates. Patterns also emerged by gender, with men more frequently linked to theft, burglary, and domestic violence, while women were often victims or engaged in prostitution. Youth, in general, demonstrated a higher likelihood of participating in criminal activities. Similarly, Alungat (2023) examined the "urban policing paradox" in Kampala, identifying the challenges of law enforcement in the face of rapid population growth and expanding informal settlements. Drawing on document reviews, key informant interviews, and focus group discussions, the study found Kampala to be highly susceptible to insecurity, with common crimes including theft, drug abuse, forgery, domestic violence, murder, cybercrime, and terrorism. The research connected these patterns to poor urban planning, entrenched corruption, and operational constraints within the Uganda Police Force.

From a regional perspective, Gacinya (2024) investigated crime prevention and control strategies in Rwanda, combining theoretical perspectives with empirical evidence. The study assessed the success of interventions such as community policing, social programs, and criminal justice reforms within the country's socio-cultural and historical setting. While highlighting achievements, the research also noted persistent challenges, providing recommendations for policymakers, law enforcement agencies, and communities. Strategies explored included situational crime prevention, social control frameworks, and locally led interventions.

Poverty and extremely harsh living conditions in urban informal settlements often foster heightened frustration and psychological distress, which in turn can lead to elevated rates of gender-based violence and aggression toward vulnerable groups (Mahmud & Riley, 2021). Overcrowded homes further exacerbate risks: children may face increased exposure to domestic violence, and when both parents are engaged in income-generating activities, diminished parental supervision can weaken their sense of belonging and increase their vulnerability to being either victims or perpetrators of violence. Though, to understand how exposure to violence shapes future behavior, Baiyu and Wanqing (2023) applied social learning, cognitive, and gender role theories. Their review demonstrates that children exposed to domestic violence often develop delayed cognitive and social skills, may normalize physical violence as a conflict resolution method, and are more likely to exhibit aggressive and violent tendencies later in life. They underscore the importance of early psychological and medical interventions to disrupt the transgenerational cycle of violence (Baiyu & Wanqing, 2023).

In Uganda's contemporary urban context, Odong (2023) employed a mixed-methods study in Kabalagala parish (Kampala Metropolitan South), surveying 358 residents and interviewing seven key informants. The research revealed that factors like high population density, informal settlement layouts, and inadequate housing escalate crime rates. Male individuals were more often associated with theft, burglary, and domestic violence, while women were more frequently victims and, in some cases, involved in prostitution. Youths were identified as having elevated propensity for engaging in criminal behaviors (Odong, 2023). Similarly, Alungat (2023) examined the "urban policing paradox" in Kampala, highlighting how rapid population growth and the expansion of informal settlements have challenged law enforcement. His study drawing on document reviews, interviews, and focus group discussions identified a multiplicity of urban crimes, including theft, forgery, domestic violence, cybercrime, drug abuse, murder, and terrorism. These threats are deeply intertwined with poor urban planning, corruption, and logistical constraints experienced by the Uganda Police Force (Alungat, 2023).

Lastly, Gacinya's (2024) study in Rwanda provides a regional perspective on effective crime prevention and control strategies. Integrating theoretical frameworks with empirical analysis, the study found that community policing, social programs, and well-aligned criminal justice policies can substantially enhance public safety. It offers valuable insights for similar urban environments like Kampala, emphasizing multi-sectoral collaboration and culturally sensitive interventions (Gacinya, 2024).

III. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study employed a correlational and cross-sectional research design to examine the relationships among crime rates, poverty, and domestic violence in Kisenyi, one of Kampala City's largest and most densely populated informal settlements. The correlational design enabled the researcher to investigate the degree to which variations in poverty levels are associated with fluctuations in crime and domestic violence without manipulating any variables, thereby maintaining the integrity of the naturally occurring conditions (Creswell, 2014; Wildemuth, 2016). The cross-sectional approach involved collecting data at a single point in time, capturing a "snapshot" of the prevailing conditions in Kisenyi. This design is widely recognized for being both cost-effective and efficient, especially in urban contexts where large populations and diverse demographic characteristics must be represented within a limited timeframe (Kmetty & Stefkovics, 2022).

3.1.1 Research Approach

A quantitative research approach was selected to provide a robust and objective assessment of the relationships between the variables under study. Quantitative methods allow for statistical testing and generalization of results to the wider population of Kisenyi by transforming participant responses into numerical data suitable for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2014). This approach was considered particularly suitable given the need to compare measurable indicators such as household income levels, reported incidences of domestic violence, and crime occurrence rates across different sections of the settlement.

3.2 Study Population

The target population consisted of residents and key stakeholders within Kisenyi. According to the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2022), Kisenyi hosts over 40,000 residents, with the majority living in high-density, substandard housing. The study population included community leaders, community development officers, police officers attached to the Family and Child Protection Unit, NGO personnel, and household residents. These groups were selected because of their direct experience with issues of crime, poverty, and domestic violence in the area. In total, the study aimed to reach 420 individuals, representing the diversity of voices in Kisenyi (see Table 3.1).

Category	Target Population
Community leaders	6
Community Development Officers	3
Police Officers (Family & Child Protection)	6
NGO personnel	5
Residents	400
Total	420

Source: Uganda Demographic Health Survey (2022).

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

The sample size was determined using Yamane's formula (Yamane, 1967) with a 5% margin of error. Given the target population of 420 individuals, the formula produced a sample size of 200 respondents, ensuring a balance between statistical validity and logistical feasibility. A mixed-method sampling strategy was employed. Purposive sampling was used to select community leaders, community development officers, police officers, and NGO representatives because of their specialized knowledge of the research problem (Morgan, 2019; Campbell *et al.*, 2020). For the resident population, simple random sampling was applied to ensure each household had an equal chance of selection. Household lists were obtained from the Parish Chief, and two respondents were randomly selected from each chosen household. This method minimized bias and enhanced the representativeness of the sample (Barroga & Matanguihan, 2022; Noor, Omid, & Golzar, 2022). (See below)

To ensure the sample is representative of the population, the sample size was calculated using Yamane's formula. The Taro Yamane method for sample size calculation was formulated by the statistician Tara Yamane in 1967 to determine the sample size from a given population. "Below is the mathematical illustration for the Taro Yamane method:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$
Were,

```
n = required sample size

N=the known population size or target population =420

e = the level of significance, which was fixed to be 0.05 or margin of error.

n=\frac{420}{1+420(0.05^2)}

n=\frac{415}{1+420(0.0025)}

n=\frac{420}{2.1}

n= 200
```

A sample of 200 respondents was selected to participate in the study. These respondents were distributed proportionately as per the number of villages in the parish.

Table 3.2: Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Category	Target Pop'n	Sample Size	Sampling Technique
Community leaders	6	3	Purposive Sampling
Community Development Officers	3	1	Purposive Sampling
Police Officers (Family & Child Protection unit)	6	3	Purposive Sampling
NGO personnel	5	2	Purposive Sampling
Residents	400	191	Simple Random Sampling
Total	420	200	

Source; Uganda Demographic Health Survey (2022) & Yamane's Formula, 1967.

3.4 Data Sources

Two main sources of data were utilized in this study:

Primary data were obtained directly from participants through structured household questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. These instruments were designed to capture firsthand information on experiences, perceptions, and observed patterns relating to crime, poverty, and domestic violence in Kisenyi (Ajayi, 2023; Dunwoodie, Macaulay, & Newman, 2023).

Secondary data were collected from relevant literature, including peer-reviewed journal articles, policy documents, NGO reports, and official government publications. These sources provided contextual and comparative insights to support the interpretation of primary data (Morgan, 2022; Coates *et al.*, 2021).

3.5 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Data were collected through structured questionnaires administered face-to-face to ensure clarity and completeness of responses. Questionnaires were chosen for their ability to collect standardized information from a large number of respondents efficiently (Crossman, 2020; Taherdoost, 2021). Each questionnaire incorporated closed-ended items, with many framed on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) to measure the degree of agreement with statements on poverty, crime, and domestic violence. In total, 210 questionnaires were distributed to accommodate potential non-responses, and anonymity was guaranteed to encourage honest participation (Stockemer, Stockemer, & Glaeser, 2019).

3.6 Validity and Reliability

The validity of the instruments was established through expert review by three senior academics and two field practitioners with experience in urban crime prevention. The Content Validity Index (CVI) was calculated as 0.80, surpassing the recommended minimum threshold of 0.70 (Mohojan, 2018; Oso & Onen, 2009), indicating strong content relevance.

The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using both the test–retest method and Cronbach's Alpha to ensure internal consistency. The Cronbach's Alpha values for the study variables ranged between 0.785 and 0.854, with an overall score of 0.820, signifying high reliability (Karnia, 2024; Kothari, 2017; Oso & Onen, 2009).

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from Cavendish University and the local authorities in Kisenyi. The research team formally introduced the study to community leaders and obtained informed consent from all respondents. Data collection took place over a five-day period, during which questionnaires were administered and collected on-site. The research team verified completed questionnaires immediately, clarifying any ambiguous responses before participants left the venue. This process minimized missing data and ensured accuracy.

3.8 Measurement of Variables

The study's three main variables—crime rate, poverty, and domestic violence—were measured using indicators adapted from prior empirical studies. Crime prevalenceindicators were drawn from Sugiharti *et al.* (2023), poverty measures from Setimba (2024), and domestic violence measures from Jama (2019). Each construct was operationalized into Likert-scale items to facilitate statistical analysis.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data were coded and analyzed using SPSS version 26.0. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to summarize the data. Inferential statistical tests included Pearson's correlation to determine relationships among the three key variables and multiple regression analysis to identify the strongest predictors of crime in Kisenyi (Oso & Onen, 2008; Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2014).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The study adhered strictly to ethical research principles. Respondents participated voluntarily, with the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and confidentiality was maintained by using codes rather than names in data files. Sensitive questions on domestic violence were handled with caution, and participants were provided with information about available counseling and protection services should they require support after the interviews.

IV: RESULTS

4.1. Response Rate

Table 4.1 above presents the results based on the respondents' willingness to share their views on the questions, which were organized under various themes.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Tools	Targeted Number	Valid Instruments	Percentage
Questionnaires	191	188	98.4
Interviews guides	9	5	55.6
Total	200	193	96.5

Source: Primary Data, (2025)

Out of the 191 questionnaires distributed, 188 were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 98.6%. While 9 interviews were initially planned, only 5 were conducted, yielding a response rate of 55.6%. The overall response rate for the study was 193 participants, representing 96.5%. The lower interview turnout was attributed to the busy schedules of some key informants. Nonetheless, the high overall response rate was achieved through effective mobilization, including prior phone call reminders. This response rate exceeds the recommended minimum of two-thirds (67%) and is considered sufficient for generalization, as noted by Amin (2005).

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive results presented in the following section reflect the respondents' opinions. The interpretation of the mean and standard deviation values is as follows: Low (1.00–1.80), Moderate (2.61–3.40), High (3.41–4.20), and Exceptionally High (4.21–5.00), as shown in Tables below:

4.2.1. Descriptive Statistics for Crime prevalence and Domestic Violence in Kisenyi

The descriptive statistics for the relationship between crime prevalence and domestic violence in Kisenyi Slum Area are detailed in the Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics for Crime prevalence and Domestic Violence in Kisenyi

Items of Crime Rate	Mean	SD
I have experienced cases of theft and burglary in my household/community	3.24	0.29
I have experienced cases of rape, pickpocketing, drug trafficking, conning in the community	3.17	0.37
There are cases of gangs involved in crime in the community	3.00	0.41
I have experienced cases of assault, house-breaking and robbery in the community	2.75	0.52
Drug abuse and alcoholism are some of the causes of domestic violence in my community	2.68	0.57
Pressures of poverty and slum circumstances increase frustration levels and the chance on gender-based violence	2.59	0.65
The population, settlement and housing structure have an effect on criminality within Kisenyi parish	2.53	0.74
In Kisenyi parish, men are more likely than women to commit crimes such as theft, burglary and domestic violence	2.51	0.82
Overall Mean & SD	2.81	0.55

Source: Primary Data, (2025)

The results in Table 4.2 show that the relationship between crime prevalence and domestic violence in Kisenyi was rated as satisfactory (Overall mean = 2.81, SD = 0.55). This indicates that most respondents agreed that crime rates have an impact on domestic violence in the Kisenyi Slum Area.

A majority of respondents reported experiencing theft and burglary incidents in their households or communities (Mean = 3.24, SD = 0.29), demonstrating awareness of these criminal activities in Kisenyi. Several participants also reported cases of rape, pickpocketing, drug trafficking, and conning in the area (Mean = 3.17, SD = 0.37), indicating widespread recognition of these crimes. Many respondents noted the presence of gangs involved in criminal activities within the community (Mean = 3.00, SD = 0.41). Additionally, a significant number experienced assaults, house break-ins, and robberies (Mean = 2.75, SD = 0.52), reflecting an understanding of these issues among the community members.

Moreover, several respondents identified drug abuse and alcoholism as contributing factors to domestic violence in the community (Mean = 2.68, SD = 0.57), showing awareness of the link between substance abuse and violence. A notable portion also agreed that poverty and challenging slum conditions increase frustration, which in turn raises the likelihood of gender-based violence (Mean = 2.59, SD = 0.65). Some respondents acknowledged that factors such as population density, settlement patterns, and housing structures influence criminality in Kisenyi (Mean = 2.53, SD = 0.74), highlighting a recognized need for the Ugandan government to address these issues in slum areas like Kisenyi. Lastly, a moderate number of respondents agreed that men in Kisenyi are more likely than women to commit crimes such as theft, burglary, and domestic violence (Mean = 2.51, SD = 0.82), indicating general agreement with this statement among participants.

4.2.2. Descriptive Statistics for Domestic Violence in Kisenyi

The descriptive statistics for the level of domestic violence in Kisenyi Slum Area are detailed in the Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics for Domestic Violence in Kisenyi

Items of Domestic Violence	Mean	SD
Alcoholism, financial stress, quarrel and cultural norms are some of the causes		0.22
of domestic violence in my community		
Families in my community normally experience sexual violence in	3.32	0.27
Households		
Individuals have been abused through beating, unwanted touches, acts of	3.28	0.31
verbal, nonverbal, or physical aggression based on sex and physical coercion		
to engage in sexual activity		
I have ever faced cases of domestic violence in my household	3.17	0.37
I have ever experienced sexual violence in my household	3.05	0.42
I have ever experienced physical violence in my household	2.88	0.48
I have ever experienced economic violence in my household	2.70	0.52
I have ever experienced psychological violence in my household	2.69	0.56
Overall Mean & SD	3.1	0.39

Source: Primary Data, (2025)

The results in Table 4.3 indicate that the level of domestic violence in Kisenyi was rated as satisfactory (Overall mean = 3.1, SD = 0.39). This implies that the majority of respondents acknowledged a high prevalence of domestic violence within the Kisenyi Slum Area.

Most respondents identified alcoholism, financial stress, quarrels, and cultural norms as key causes of domestic violence in their community (Mean = 3.54, SD = 0.22). Several respondents reported that families in the community often experience sexual violence within households (Mean = 3.32, SD = 0.27). A majority noted that individuals have been subjected to abuse in various forms, including physical beating, unwanted touching, verbal and nonverbal aggression based on sex, and physical coercion to engage in sexual activity (Mean = 3.28, SD = 0.31). A significant number of respondents also shared that they had personally witnessed or experienced domestic violence in their households (Mean = 3.17, SD = 0.37), reflecting widespread awareness of domestic violence in Kisenyi.

Furthermore, several respondents disclosed experiences of sexual violence in their households (Mean = 3.05, SD = 0.42), highlighting that sexual violence remains a pressing concern. A notable proportion reported experiencing physical violence in their households (Mean = 2.88, SD = 0.48), indicating an increased level of physical violence that calls for targeted policy

Abeera Odetha Katuramu, 2025, 10(2):19-35

interventions. Economic violence was also reported by many respondents (Mean = 2.70, SD = 0.52), suggesting financial control and deprivation as forms of domestic abuse prevalent in the community. Finally, a relative number of respondents acknowledged experiencing psychological violence (Mean = 2.69, SD = 0.56), underscoring the need for the government and relevant stakeholders to address both economic and psychological violence as part of comprehensive domestic violence prevention efforts in Kisenyi.

4.3. Establishing Relationships

4.3.1 Relationship between Study Variables (Correlation Analysis)

Correlation is used to find the relationship between two variables. Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation was employed in establishing the relationship between the study variables. The results of the correlation are presented in Table 4.4 below;

Table 4.4: Pearson's Zero Order Correlation Matrix

Variables	1	2
1. Crime prevalence	1	.646**
2. Domestic Violence		1

Note. N = 200 p < .01 (2-tailed).**Source:** Primary data (2025).

Description of the results

Results in Table 4.4 show a moderately strong, statistically significant positive correlation (r = .646, p < .01) between crime prevalence and domestic violence in Kisenyi Slum Area, Kampala City. This means that communities reporting higher levels of overall crime also tend to report higher rates of domestic violence. The strength and direction of the relationship suggest that in Kisenyi's informal settlement environment, social and economic stressors fueling street crime may also contribute to conflict and violence within households. This interconnectedness implies that reducing either form of violence may require integrated interventions addressing both public safety and domestic welfare simultaneously.

4.3.2. Regression Analysis

Table 4.5 below presents the regression analysis that was used to assess the effect of crime prevalence on domestic violence in Kisenyi Slum Area.

Table 4.13: Simple Linear Regression Analysis of Crime Prevalence on Domestic Violence in Kisenyi Slum Area

Predictor	В	SE	β	t	p
Constant	2.785	1.054	_	2.642	.010
Crime prevalence	0.582	0.228	0.354	3.071	.003

R = .354, $R^2 = .125$, F(1, N-2) = 9.432, p = .003, Std. Error of the Estimate = 0.20457.

Dependent variable: Domestic Violence.

Source: Primary data (2025).

Description of Results

The simple linear regression results presented in Table 4.13 show that crime prevalence significantly predicts domestic violence in Kisenyi Slum Area, Kampala City, F(1, N-2) = 9.432, p = .003. The model explains approximately 12.5% of the variance in domestic violence ($R^2 = .125$). The unstandardized coefficient (B = 0.582, p = .003) indicates that for every one-unit

increase in crime prevalence, domestic violence increases by 0.582 units on the measurement scale used.

This finding suggests a positive and significant relationship between general crime levels and domestic violence, indicating that efforts to reduce crime in Kisenyi could also contribute to lowering domestic violence rates. The moderate effect size points to the importance of crime reduction initiatives as part of broader interventions addressing domestic violence in slum communities.

4.4. Discussion of Results

The study's findings reveal a high prevalence of crime in Kisenyi Slum Area, with residents widely reporting incidents such as theft, burglary, sexual offenses, and gang-related activities. The moderate to high mean scores indicate that crime is a tangible and persistent threat to the community. This is consistent with existing research which suggests that urban informal settlements like Kisenyi tend to have elevated crime rates due to factors such as poverty, social disorganization, lack of formal policing, and dense population structures (UN-Habitat, 2016). The high visibility of these crimes likely contributes to a heightened sense of insecurity among residents, which can perpetuate cycles of fear and vulnerability. In tandem with crime prevalence, the study found a significant level of domestic violence, encompassing physical, sexual, economic, and psychological abuse. Causes identified such as alcoholism, financial stress, quarrels, and ingrained cultural norms reflect a complex interplay of individual, relational, and community-level risk factors. These results echo global findings that domestic violence is deeply rooted in social and economic stressors and often exacerbated by substance abuse (World Health Organization, 2019). The acknowledgement by respondents of widespread domestic violence highlights the urgent need for focused interventions that address both the symptoms and root causes of household conflict within slum settings.

While, the positive correlation between crime prevalence and domestic violence underscores a critical dynamic in Kisenyi: public violence and private violence are interconnected rather than isolated phenomena. This relationship suggests that environments characterized by frequent crime are also likely to experience higher rates of domestic violence, possibly due to shared underlying stressors such as economic hardship, social exclusion, and disrupted social networks (Jewkes, 2017). The implication is that community-level violence creates a context where domestic violence is more likely to occur, reinforcing the idea that interventions must be multidimensional and target broader social conditions. Also, the regression analysis confirms that crime prevalence is a significant predictor of domestic violence, accounting for about 12.5% of the variance in domestic violence rates. While this indicates that crime is an important factor, it also suggests other elements such as cultural norms, mental health issues, and economic conditions play substantial roles. The measurable increase in domestic violence associated with rising crime levels reflects a spillover effect, where the stress and fear generated by public crime exacerbate tensions and violence within households. This finding supports ecological models of violence which advocate for examining both community and family environments to understand and address domestic violence comprehensively (Heise, 2011).

5.0. Conclusions

In conclusion, the findings provide strong evidence that crime and domestic violence are intertwined social problems in Kisenyi Slum Area. The widespread recognition of both forms of violence among respondents confirms their prevalence and severity. The study highlights that not only does crime directly impact community safety, but it also indirectly fuels domestic violence by creating stressful and unstable environments for families. This dual burden has

significant implications for community well-being and development. The conclusion that crime prevalence significantly predicts domestic violence underscores the need for an integrated understanding of violence in informal urban settlements. Rather than viewing domestic violence as solely a private issue, this research situates it within a broader socio-economic and environmental context, revealing how community crime exacerbates family-level conflicts. This perspective aligns with contemporary violence prevention frameworks which emphasize addressing root causes and intersecting risk factors across multiple levels.

6.0. Recommendations

Given the demonstrated link between crime prevalence and domestic violence, it is imperative to develop comprehensive interventions that address both simultaneously. Community policing efforts should be combined with initiatives offering support to domestic violence survivors, such as safe shelters, counseling, and legal aid. Such integrated programming acknowledges the overlapping nature of public and private violence and maximizes resource efficiency while addressing multiple community needs (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2013). Further, the economic hardship emerged as a significant contributor to both crime and domestic violence. Programs aimed at reducing poverty through skills training, microfinance, and income-generating activities can alleviate financial stress and reduce frustration that often leads to violence. Social support networks such as community groups and local NGOs can also play a vital role in fostering resilience and providing assistance to vulnerable households, thereby mitigating violence (Buvinic & Morrison, 2018).

Also, the recognition of drug abuse and alcoholism as key factors driving domestic violence calls for targeted interventions in substance abuse prevention and rehabilitation. Community-based programs offering education, treatment, and peer support can reduce dependency and associated violent behaviors. Addressing substance abuse is crucial not only for reducing domestic violence but also for improving overall community health and safety (World Health Organization, 2018). In addition, cultural norms that tolerate or justify violence against women and other vulnerable groups remain a significant barrier to reducing domestic violence. Public awareness campaigns, led by local leaders and supported by media, are necessary to challenge these norms and promote gender equality. Engaging men and boys as allies in violence prevention is also essential to foster sustainable cultural change and reduce gender-based violence (Heise, 2011).

Lastly, overcrowding and poor housing conditions contribute to stress, insecurity, and higher crime rates in Kisenyi. Government and urban planners must prioritize infrastructure development, improving housing quality, access to water, sanitation, and safe public spaces. Enhancing the physical environment reduces environmental stressors and can disrupt crime cycles, creating safer neighborhoods that support family stability (UN-Habitat, 2015).

7.0. Contribution to Knowledge

This study significantly contributes to the understanding of the interplay between crime prevalence and domestic violence within informal urban settlements, using Kisenyi Slum Area in Kampala City as a case study. While prior research has often examined crime and domestic violence as separate phenomena, this research integrates these dynamics, revealing a statistically significant positive relationship between overall crime rates and domestic violence levels in slum settings. By quantifying this relationship, the study advances knowledge on how public and private forms of violence intersect, highlighting that interventions targeting crime reduction could simultaneously mitigate domestic violence. Furthermore, the research provides context-specific insights into the socio-economic and environmental factors prevalent in Kisenyi that

exacerbate violence, such as overcrowding, poverty-induced frustration, and substance abuse. These findings deepen scholarly appreciation of the unique challenges faced by urban informal settlements in low-income countries, underscoring the need for tailored, multifaceted policy responses.

Additionally, the empirical evidence that crime prevalence accounts for approximately 12.5% of the variance in domestic violence emphasizes the importance of integrating community safety measures with social welfare programs. This contributes to policy discourse by advocating for holistic approaches rather than isolated interventions. Finally, by employing a robust mixed-methods design with high response rates, this study enriches the methodological literature on conducting sensitive research in marginalized urban communities, offering practical insights into sampling and data collection strategies under challenging conditions. Collectively, these contributions provide a foundation for further research and informed policymaking aimed at improving safety and well-being in slum environments.

REFERENCES

- Ajayi, O. (2023). Experiences and perceptions of crime and domestic violence in urban slums. *Journal of Urban Studies*, 12(2), 145–160.
- Alungat, A. (2023). The urban policing paradox in Kampala: Challenges and strategies. *African Journal of Criminology*, 5(1), 35–52.
- Barroga, A., & Matanguihan, G. (2022). Sampling techniques in social science research. *Research Methods Quarterly*, 8(4), 213–227.
- Baiyu, L., & Wanqing, C. (2023). Intergenerational transmission of violence: A social learning perspective. *Journal of Family Violence*, 38(1), 45–60. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-022-00404-5
- Buvinic, M., & Morrison, A. (2018). Violence prevention through social support and economic empowerment. *International Development Review*, 40(3), 295–312.
- Campbell, D., Smith, J., & Johnson, R. (2020). Purposive sampling and its applications. *Social Research Journal*, 9(3), 112–123.
- Cohen, J., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2014). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Cohen, L. E., & Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review*, 44(4), 588–608.
- Cohen, L. E., & Felson, M. (2021). Routine activity theory and urban crime revisited. *Crime and Delinquency*, 67(5), 713–736. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128720984775
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Crossman, A. (2020). Questionnaire design: How to design and use questionnaires. *ThoughtCo*. https://www.thoughtco.com/questionnaire-design-3026553
- Dunwoodie, E., Macaulay, C., & Newman, A. (2023). Collecting data on urban violence: Methods and ethics. *Journal of Social Research Methods*, 15(1), 78–92.
- Gacinya, E. (2024). Crime prevention and control in Rwanda: Community policing and social programs. *Rwanda Journal of Criminology*, 2(1), 23–40.
- Jama, A. (2019). Measuring domestic violence in informal settlements. *Journal of Violence Research*, 7(4), 198–210.
- Jewkes, R. (2017). Violence against women: An entrenched public health problem. *The Lancet*, 389(10080), 1422–1424. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)30602-5
- Jewkes, R., & Abrahams, N. (2013). Preventing violence against women: Action and priorities. *The Lancet*, 382(9904), 1495–1496. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)62036-X
- Karnia, R. (2024). Reliability testing in social science research. *Journal of Measurement Science*, 11(2), 105–119.

Abeera Odetha Katuramu, 2025, 10(2):19-35

- Keemera, S. (2022). Domestic violence effects on children during COVID-19 lockdown: A systematic review. *Child Health Review*, 9(3), 150–167.
- Kersley, L., & Laurence, S. (2019). Lived experiences of domestic violence survivors: A phenomenological study. *Journal of Women's Studies*, 10(1), 33–49.
- Kmetty, Z., & Stefkovics, E. (2022). Cross-sectional studies in urban settings: Design and challenges. *Urban Research Methods*, 14(2), 89–102.
- Kothari, C. R. (2017). Research methodology: Methods and techniques (3rd ed.). New Age International.
- Mayanja, D., Mugisha, J., & Namatovu, R. (2023). Intimate partner violence among youth in Kisenyi slum, Kampala. *Uganda Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(1), 12–28.
- Mohojan, M. (2018). Content validity index: A measure of content validity. *Journal of Nursing and Care*, 7(4), 1–3.
- Morgan, D. L. (2019). Purposive sampling in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research Reports*, 11(1), 12–15.
- Morgan, T. (2022). Using secondary data in social science research. *Research Methods Quarterly*, 10(4), 200–215.
- Nguyen, T. (2019). Impact of overcrowding on child development and exposure to domestic violence. *Journal of Child Psychology*, 34(2), 145–158.
- Ngozi, C., & Musa, F. (2022). Environmental factors and urban crime: The routine activity perspective. *International Journal of Criminology*, 6(1), 45–58.
- Noor, M., Omid, A., & Golzar, H. (2022). Sampling techniques in urban research. *Journal of Urban Studies*, 16(3), 210–225.
- Nuwematsiko, B., Kabagenyi, A., & Kamya, H. (2022). COVID-19 impact on domestic violence in Kampala informal settlements. *African Journal of Public Health*, 14(2), 89–104.
- Odong, M. (2023). Crime and slum conditions in Kampala: A case of Kabalagala parish. *East African Journal of Sociology*, 9(1), 44–63.
- Oso, W. Y., & Onen, D. (2008). A general guide to writing research proposals and reports. Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.
- Oso, W. Y., & Onen, D. (2009). Validity and reliability in research. *Research Methods Handbook*, 4(2), 20–30.
- Palit, S. (2022). Poverty, frustration, and gender-based violence in urban slums. *Journal of Social Issues*, 28(3), 233–250.
- Setimba, C. (2024). Measuring poverty in urban informal settlements: A review of indicators. *Development Studies Journal*, 12(1), 55–70.
- Stockemer, D., Stockemer, A., & Glaeser, C. (2019). Survey research and response rates: Strategies for success. *Journal of Survey Methodology*, 7(3), 101–115.
- Ssewanyana, D., Okello, M., & Mwesigwa, R. (2022). Youth violence and risky behaviours in urban Uganda. *Journal of African Studies*, 15(2), 90–107.
- Sugiharti, L., Wardani, S., & Nurhayati, N. (2022). Housing shortage and crime in urban Indonesia. *Journal of Urban Development*, 19(4), 400–415.
- Taherdoost, H. (2021). Designing and conducting questionnaires: A comprehensive guide. *International Journal of Research in Management*, 12(1), 45–62.
- Tuhebwe, D., Nankinga, O., & Mugisha, F. (2021). Social determinants of health in Kampala's informal settlements: Kisenyi case study. *Uganda Health Journal*, 7(1), 28–41.
- Uganda Bureau of Statistics. (2022). Population and housing census report. *Government of Uganda*.
- UN-Habitat. (2015). Urban housing challenges in informal settlements. *United Nations Human Settlements Programme*. https://unhabitat.org/publications/urban-housing-challenges-in-informal-settlements
- UN-Habitat. (2016). Global report on urban crime and violence. United Nations Human Settlements Programme. https://unhabitat.org/global-report-on-urban-crime-and-violence

- White, R., Sardinha, L., & Garcia-Moreno, C. (2023). Domestic violence trends during COVID-19 pandemic. *Global Health Review*, 5(1), 12–26.
- Wildemuth, B. M. (2016). Applications of social research methods to questions in information and library science (2nd ed.). Libraries Unlimited.
- World Health Organization. (2018). *Global status report on alcohol and health 2018*. WHO Press. https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241565639
- World Health Organization. (2019). *Violence against women prevalence estimates, 2018*. WHO Press. https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022256
- Yamane, T. (1967). Statistics: An introductory analysis (2nd ed.). Harper and Row.